

Anodic production of hydrogen peroxide using commercial carbon materials

Dhananjai Pangotra ^{a,b}, Lénárd-István Csepei ^a, Arne Roth ^a, Carlos Ponce de León ^c, Volker Sieber ^{a,b}, Luciana Vieira ^{a,*}

^a Fraunhofer Institute of Interfacial Engineering and Biotechnology IGB, Bio-, Electro-, and Chemocatalysis BioCat, Straubing Branch, Schulgasse 11a, 94315, Straubing, Germany

^b Chair of Chemistry for Biogenic Resources, Campus Straubing for Biotechnology and Sustainability, Technical University of Munich, Schulgasse 16, 94315, Straubing, Germany

^c Electrochemical Engineering Laboratory, Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences, University of Southampton, Highfield, Southampton SO17 1BJ, United Kingdom

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ABSTRACT

The electrochemical production of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) from water is an appealing alternative to substitute the classic anthraquinone process. Herein, we show a process development to maximize the efficiency of the anodic production of H₂O₂. Carbon materials were used as anodes to optimize process parameters such as current density, electrolyte concentration, and the pH. We found that the electrolyte concentration, pH, and the presence of a chemical stabilizer have a substantial effect on the selectivity of water oxidation to H₂O₂. The addition of Na₂SiO₃ as a stabilizer increased the H₂O₂ production significantly at high pH regimes. A direct relationship between CO₃²⁻ ion activity and enhanced production of H₂O₂ was also observed. We report H₂O₂ concentrations in the anolyte up to 33 mmol L⁻¹ at a current density of 100 mA cm⁻² using commercial and low-cost carbon fiber paper.

1. Introduction

Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) is a widely used industrial product. Because its decomposition generates oxygen (O₂) and water (H₂O) only, it is widely praised as a “green oxidant”. It is used as an oxidizing agent in the chemical industry [1–3], in wastewater treatment [4,5], and as a propellant in the aerospace industry [6–8]. In refineries, H₂O₂ is applied for oxidative desulfurization of oil fractions to meet regulations referring to transportation fuels [9–13]. Changes in the limit of sulfur established by the International Maritime Organization (IMO) may lead to an exponential increase in H₂O₂ demand in this sector [14–16]. H₂O₂ also has a biocidal effect [17], thus it is used in low concentrations as a component of antiseptics [18] and hand sanitizers certified by the World Health Organization [19]. Recent research shows its promising results in the disinfection of personal protective equipment against the SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19 virus [20–22]. While the healthcare industry’s application was considered a relatively minor market, after the outbreak of COVID-19, the H₂O₂ demand in this branch increased dramatically [23].

Currently, H₂O₂ is produced via the anthraquinone (AO) process, an

energy-demanding multistep method that requires large quantities of harmful organic solvents and fossil-based hydrogen [24,25]. Therefore, developing an alternate “green” route for H₂O₂ production is a subject of high scientific and economic interest [13]. The electrochemical synthesis of H₂O₂ from renewable electricity and naturally abundant educts O₂ and H₂O is a promising pathway compared to the current AO process [7]. There are two possible electrochemical routes for H₂O₂ production, i.e., via cathodic and anodic reactions. The cathodic route is based on the O₂ reduction in an aqueous medium (Eq. (1)) using catalysts based on carbon [26–29], noble metals (Au, Ag [7] and Pd [30]), noble metal alloys (e.g. Pt-Hg [31], Pd-Au [32]) or compounds like PtP₂ [33]. From the perspective of minimizing process costs, non-noble metal-based electrocatalysts such as Ni₃B are more attractive [34]. Many reactor designs, including pressurized-jet microfluidic flow-through reactor, have been developed to enhance O₂ solubility, maximizing reaction efficiency, and reducing energy consumption [35,36]. The anodic formation of H₂O₂ proceeds via two-electron oxidation of water (Eq. (2)) at the anode [7,37]. This anodic route is particularly promising because it can be combined with many cathodic reactions, including the cathodic production of H₂O₂ via oxygen reduction reaction (ORR), hydrogen

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: luciana.vieira@igb.fraunhofer.de (L. Vieira).

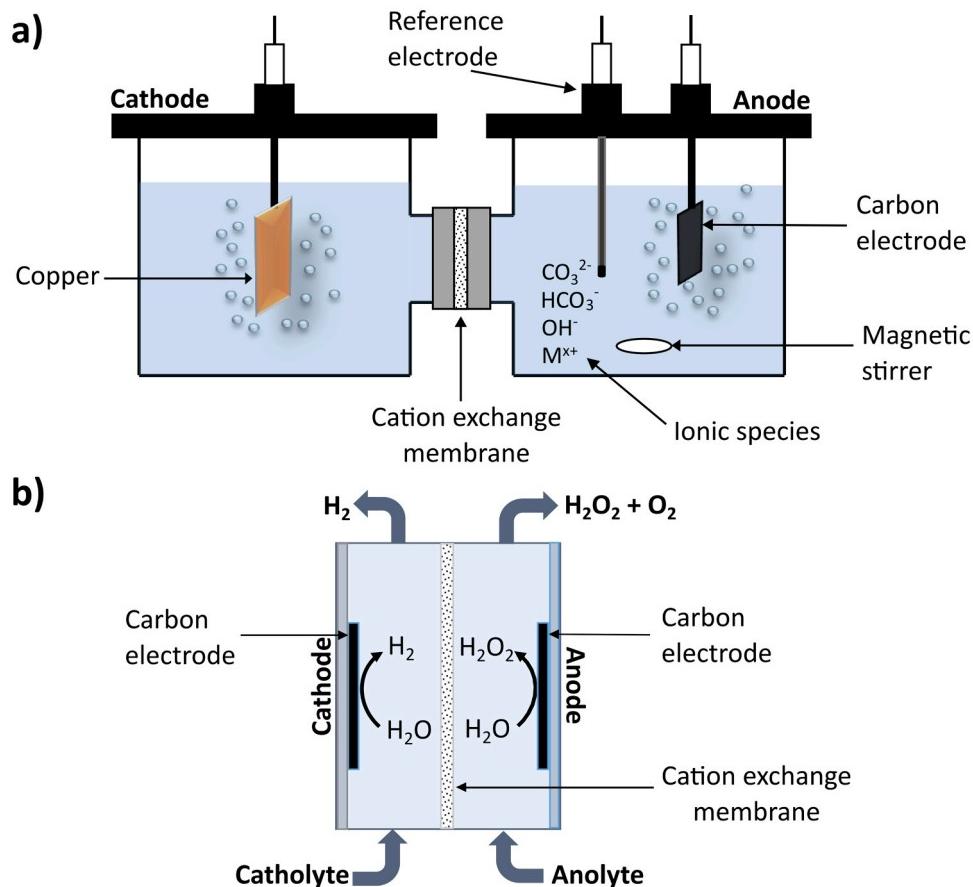
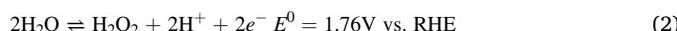


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the utilized electrochemical cells. (a) H-cell equipped with a 1 cm² carbon anode and a 7.5 cm² cm copper plate cathode at 6 cm distance. (b) Flow cell with 10 cm² carbon electrodes (cathode and anode) at 8 mm electrode distance. 200 mL of the electrolyte solution in a reservoir was used in each flow cell compartment circulating at a rate of 100 mL min⁻¹. Both cells were separated by a Nafion 117 membrane.

evolution reaction (HER), and CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR), thus enabling productive utilization of both half-cell reactions.



Recent research efforts regarding the anodic production of H₂O₂ have focused on catalyst materials and electrode development to enable high selectivity towards H₂O₂. Various metal oxides, including BiVO₄, CaSnO₃, ZnO, WO₃, SnO₂, and TiO₂, have been reported as active electrocatalysts for the anodic synthesis of H₂O₂ [37–42]. High faradaic efficiencies (up to 80%) have been reported for those systems, albeit only at low current densities (0.1–15 mA cm⁻²) [37–42] with H₂O₂ production rate up to 5.7 μmol min⁻¹ cm⁻² [38]. Carbon-based materials coated with hydrophobic polymers (PTFE/CFP) have shown exceptional catalytic performance in terms of activity and electrode stability, with an excellent production rate of 23.4 μmol min⁻¹ cm⁻² in 1 mol L⁻¹ Na₂CO₃ [43]. Boron-doped diamond (BDD) electrodes have also been reported as remarkable materials for water oxidation to H₂O₂, with outstanding production rates of 19.7 μmol min⁻¹ cm⁻² in 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ [44]. Yet, the electrochemical oxidation of water to H₂O₂ depends not only on the choice of the electrode material but also on reaction parameters, particularly the current/potential applied, electrolyte concentration, pH, and H₂O₂ stabilizers [45,46].

The highest H₂O₂ concentration ever achieved by electrochemical methods was 20 wt% H₂O₂ solution via electrochemical O₂ reduction using a solid electrolyte setup [47]. With this exception, the concentration of H₂O₂ produced electrochemically is, in general, relatively low compared to that achievable by the current AO process. Nevertheless,

the relatively lower H₂O₂ concentrations achieved electrochemically are already promising for healthcare and environmental applications. Moreover, the electrochemical route would enable the decentralization of H₂O₂ production, requiring only an electrochemical device and electricity [45]. Decentralized electrocatalytic H₂O₂ production could be an enabling technology for local disinfectant production in the concept of future hospitals [48] as well as in remote places in the fight against COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, MERS [49,50], Ebola [49,51], and Zika [49] viruses. Furthermore, an integrated solar-electricity-driven water treatment process would enable removing recalcitrant chemicals [52–54] and bacteria [54,55].

This study identifies and applies optimized electrolyte conditions for the anodic oxidation of water to H₂O₂. These optimized operating conditions enabled the maximization of the activity, selectivity, efficiency, and stability of the electrochemical process, aiming high H₂O₂ concentration. We have used unmodified commercial carbon materials as electrocatalysts due to their high surface area, relatively high conductivity, and chemical stability in alkaline electrolytes. These carbon materials are easy to use and have considerably low costs. Firstly, different carbon materials were screened for their catalytic activity in a two-compartment stationary H-cell. Carbon cloth, carbon fiber paper, carbon felt, glassy carbon, and carbon gas diffusion layer were used as electrode materials. Outperforming material was further investigated in a 10 cm² flow cell, offering more relevant operational conditions in the light of potential future applications and scale-up. The impact of current density (*j*) and potential variation, pH control, electrolyte concentration, and the presence of a chemical stabilizer has been analyzed and the most suitable reaction parameters for the anodic production of H₂O₂ in high concentrations have been identified. Additionally, the impact of HCO₃⁻

and CO_3^{2-} ions' activity in the electrolyte on the electrochemical H_2O_2 production was examined, indicating clearly the importance of CO_3^{2-} ions for the anodic H_2O_2 production.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Characterization

The surface morphology of all the different carbon materials was examined by a scanning electron microscope (SEM Carl Zeiss DSM 940A Oberkochen, Germany) at 20 kV and 6 mm working distance. The electrode materials were placed onto a carbon tape on top of an alumina

(Electrocell, Denmark) (Fig. 1b) with 10 cm² (3 cm × 3.5 cm) electrodes separated by a Nafion 117 cation exchange membrane (CEM). 200 mL of the electrolyte solution was circulated in each compartment with a 100 mL min⁻¹ flow controlled by a flow pump (Watson-Marlow) in a flow range varying from 2 to 120 mL min⁻¹.

2.3. H_2O_2 analysis

The analytic quantification of H_2O_2 in an electrochemical system can be influenced by the type of electrolyte, pH, and other interfering species generated at the electrode [56]. Therefore we used three methods to detect H_2O_2 : an enzymatic assay, detection strips, and KMnO_4 titration.

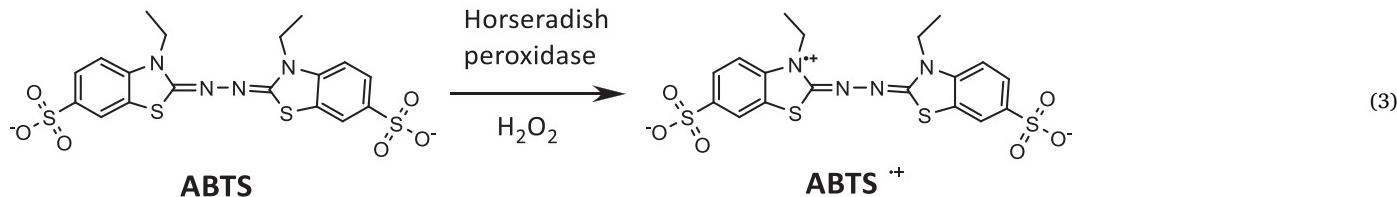


plate sample holder. The thickness of each carbon material was measured with ImageJ from at least 10 different areas of an SEM image.

2.2. Electrochemical measurements

Electrochemical measurements were performed at room temperature and atmospheric pressure using an Autolab PGSTAT128N potentiostat/galvanostat coupled with a 10 A booster. Screening experiments were performed in a two-compartment H-Cell (Fig. 1a) with a three-electrode configuration separated by an ion-exchange membrane (Nafion 117, Ion Power, Germany). Carbon cloth (W1S1005), carbon fiber paper (TP-060), gas diffusion layer (Freudenberg, H23C9), all from Quintech, Germany, glassy carbon rod (Metrohm, 61247000) and carbon felt (Alfa Aesar, 43200) were used as electrodes without further treatment. Carbon samples with a geometric area of 1 cm² were used as anode, 7.5 cm² copper plate as cathode, and Ag/AgCl in 3.5 mol L⁻¹ KCl (eDAQ) as a reference electrode. 25 mL of 2 mol L⁻¹ potassium hydrogen carbonate (KHCO₃, Sigma Aldrich, 99.5%) was chosen as standard electrolyte [41] and was freshly prepared prior to each experiment. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) at 10 mV s⁻¹ and chronopotentiometry at 50 mA cm⁻² (related to the geometric area of the anode) were measured for each carbon material. The cell potential was recorded with a voltammeter. The pH of the electrolyte was regulated with the addition of potassium hydroxide (KOH, Carl Roth) salt or CO₂ bubbling. The electrolyte conductivity was measured with a conductometer (VWR pHenomenal® CO 3100 H) and the pH with a pH-meter (VWR pH 3210). Potassium carbonate (K₂CO₃, ≥99%, Carl Roth) and sodium metasilicate (Na₂SiO₃, Sigma Aldrich) were used as received.

After the material screening, the best performing electrode was evaluated by chronoamperometry with multiple potential steps. The concentration of H_2O_2 was measured at each step potential, in intervals of 0.2 V from +1.2 V to +2 V vs. Ag/AgCl, with 10 min at each step. The corresponding current densities were calculated using the geometric area of the electrode.

Flow cell experiments were carried out in a Microflow cell

The enzymatic assay is based on the one-electron oxidation of ABTS ABTS (2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid), Sigma Aldrich) by H_2O_2 into the corresponding radical cation, ABTS⁺. This reaction is catalyzed by the enzyme horseradish peroxidase (HRP, Sigma Aldrich) [57,58] (Eq. (3)).

For this enzymatic method, 2 mmol L⁻¹ ABTS (in 0.1 mol L⁻¹ potassium phosphate buffer, KPi, pH 5.0) and 5.0 mg L⁻¹ of horseradish peroxidase (HRP) were freshly prepared before use. A standard cuvette for the photometric investigation was prepared with 1 mL ABTS solution, 0.1 mL of the HRP enzyme, and 0.1 mL of the sample (H_2O_2 in 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ solution). The solution was mixed well and kept for 10 min at room temperature. The progression of this enzymatic reaction is accompanied by a color change in the solution from colorless to green, depending on the concentration of H_2O_2 . Thereafter, the absorbance of the solution was measured at 405 nm in a Shimadzu UV-1800 spectrophotometer. The molar extinction coefficient ($\epsilon_{405\text{nm}}$) of oxidized ABTS is 36,800 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹. The calibration curve is shown in Supporting Information, Fig. S1a.

For the detection with strips, the color intensity of the strip is measured with a strip reader (Quantofix Relax, Macherey-Nagel) [39, 44]. As for the titration with KMnO_4 , a 100 mL electrolyte sample was acidified with 5 mL (1:5) sulfuric acid solution and titrated with 0.02 mol L⁻¹ standardized KMnO_4 solution as reported in the literature [44,56,59].

All three detection techniques yield comparable results for the standard H_2O_2 solutions. A comparison for all three methods is shown in Supporting Information, Fig. S1b. In all the experiments herein shown, we determined the H_2O_2 concentration with the detection strip and confirmed it with the ABTS assay.

The faradaic efficiency (FE) of the produced H_2O_2 was calculated by the following equation (Eq. (4)):

$$\text{FE}(\%) = \frac{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \text{ detected(mol)} \times \text{no. of electrons} \times \text{Faraday constant (C mol}^{-1})}{\text{total charge passed (C)}} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

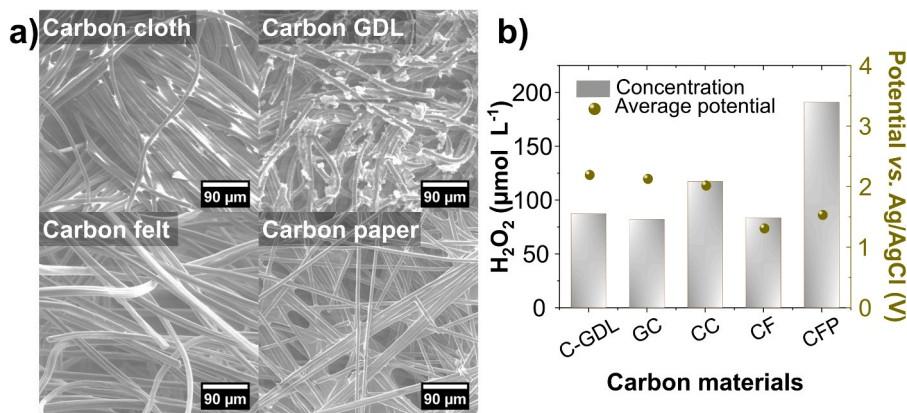


Fig. 2. Selection of carbon material for H₂O₂ synthesis. (a) SEM images of carbon cloth (CC), carbon gas diffusion layer (C-GDL), carbon felt (CF), and carbon fiber paper (CFP) used in this study. (b) H₂O₂ concentration in the anolyte and average electrode potential (vs. Ag/AgCl) during electrolysis using different carbon materials at 50 mA cm⁻² for 10 min at room temperature.

Table 1

Performance of different carbon materials for H₂O₂ production. Anodic H₂O₂ production with different carbon materials as electrode after 10 min galvanostatic polarization at 50 mA cm⁻². The potential corresponds to the average electrode potential during electrolysis.

Carbon material	H ₂ O ₂ concentration μmol L ⁻¹	Highest H ₂ O ₂ production rate μmol min ⁻¹ cm ⁻²	Maximum H ₂ O ₂ FE %	Potential V vs. Ag/AgCl
Carbon fiber paper (CFP)	190.9	0.48	3.1	1.5
Carbon cloth (CC)	117.2	0.29	1.9	2.0
Gas diffusion layer (C-GDL)	87.3	0.22	1.4	2.2
Carbon felt (CF)	83.5	0.21	1.3	1.3
Glassy carbon (GC)	82.0	0.21	1.3	2.1

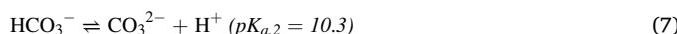
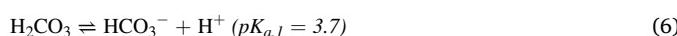
where the number of electrons is 2 for water oxidation to H₂O₂, and the Faraday constant is 96485 C mol⁻¹.

The production rate of the H₂O₂ produced is given by Eq. (5):

$$\text{Production rate} (\mu\text{mol min}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}) = \frac{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \text{ detected} (\mu\text{mol})}{\text{time} (\text{min}) \times \text{area of the electrode} (\text{cm}^2)} \quad (5)$$

2.4. Calculation of the ionic activities for HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻

To address the question of how the bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻)/carbonate (CO₃²⁻) species affect the productivity of H₂O₂, a speciation analysis was carried out, taking into account the equilibrium of ions in the solution according to Eqs. (6) and (7). Depending on the pH of the solution, different carbonate species (H₂CO₃, HCO₃⁻, and CO₃²⁻) as well as H₂O₂ (as H₂O₂ and HOO⁻) can be present in the solutions (Supporting Information, Fig. S2) [37,60,61].



The molar fraction (α) of each species was calculated based on Eqs. (9) and (10). Since the experiments were carried out in highly

concentrated electrolytes which deviate from the ideal behavior of diluted electrolytes, the ion activities ($a_{\text{HCO}_3^-}$ and $a_{\text{CO}_3^{2-}}$) were calculated as shown in Eqs. (11) and (12) using the activity coefficient (f_{\pm}) shown in Eq. (13), where z_i is the charge of the ion, A is Debye-Hückel parameter (0.51 kg^{1/2} mol^{-1/2}, for water at 25 °C), and B is a temperature-dependent parameter. Based on the pH change and carbonate equilibria, we calculated the activity of HCO₃⁻ ($a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$) and CO₃²⁻ ($a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$) ions dependent on the pH of the electrolyte during electrolysis for each concentration (c) of KHCO₃.

$$K_{a,i} = 10^{-pK_{a,i}} \quad (8)$$

$$\alpha_{\text{HCO}_3^-} = \frac{K_{a,1} \cdot [\text{H}^+]}{[\text{H}^+]^2 + K_{a,1} \cdot [\text{H}^+] + K_{a,1} \cdot K_{a,2}} \quad (9)$$

$$\alpha_{\text{CO}_3^{2-}} = \frac{K_{a,1} \cdot K_{a,2}}{[\text{H}^+]^2 + K_{a,1} \cdot [\text{H}^+] + K_{a,1} * K_{a,2}} \quad (10)$$

$$a_{\text{HCO}_3^-} = \alpha_{\text{HCO}_3^-} \cdot c_{\text{KHCO}_3} f_{\pm} \quad (11)$$

$$a_{\text{CO}_3^{2-}} = \alpha_{\text{CO}_3^{2-}} \cdot c_{\text{KHCO}_3} f_{\pm} \quad (12)$$

$$\log f_{\pm} = - \frac{A \cdot Z_i^2 \cdot \sqrt{j}}{1 + B \cdot a_i \cdot \sqrt{j}} \quad (13)$$

3. Result and discussion

3.1. Selection of carbon material

Commercial carbon materials were evaluated for the anodic synthesis of H₂O₂ in a two-compartment H-cell. The materials comprise carbon gas diffusion layer (C-GDL), glassy carbon (GC), carbon cloth (CC), carbon felt (CF), and carbon fiber paper (CFP). SEM images of each carbon electrode are depicted in Fig. 2a. All materials except GC were fibrous. CFP and CF were highly porous, whereas CC and C-GDL were more compact. The fibers' average thickness for C-GDL, CC, CF, and CFP was 11.0, 8.7, 15.5, and 7.9 μm, respectively.

The current densities of different materials upon anodic polarization were evaluated in a first screening step by LSV (Supporting Information, Fig. S3a). The lowest onset potential was observed for CF (1.16 V vs. Ag/AgCl) followed by CFP. Exceptionally high current densities of 399 and 177 mA cm⁻² at 2 V vs. Ag/AgCl were obtained with CF and CFP electrodes, respectively, indicating high water oxidation affinity (to O₂ and/or H₂O₂) for these two materials.

In a second step, the H₂O₂ production was measured quantitatively after 10 min of galvanostatic polarization at 50 mA cm⁻², which

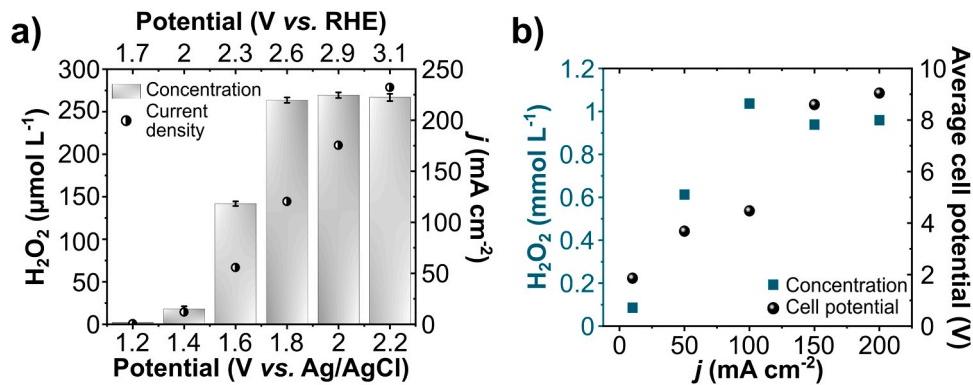


Fig. 3. Impact of operating potential and current density. (a) H₂O₂ concentration and current density at different applied potentials in 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ in an H-Cell. (b) Final H₂O₂ concentration and average cell potential after 150 min of electrolysis at different applied current densities in a flow cell using 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ at 100 mL min⁻¹ flow rate.

provided a constant 30 C charge for each electrode material. Among the investigated carbon materials, CFP revealed the highest selectivity and FE towards H₂O₂, with a FE of 3.1% and a maximum production rate of 0.48 μmol min⁻¹ cm⁻², followed by CC, C-GDL, CF, and GC as shown in Table 1 and Fig. 2b. Compared to the other carbon materials, CF and CFP showed the lowest electrode potential during the galvanostatic experiments, with 1.3 and 1.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, respectively. The different electrochemical activity of the carbon materials toward WOR could be caused by the materials difference in electrode structure, the hydrophobicity of the surface, and due to the transport of the reaction products. The lowest activity of GC is likely due to its 2D structure. All carbon materials except GC are fibrous, with a 3D structure. Hence, the electrochemical active area of GC is considerably lower than the other carbon materials. CFP and CF are highly porous, whereas CC and C-GDL are more compact 3D structures, as shown in the SEM images of Fig. 2a. The product transport characteristics in the electrode materials are

determined by their porosity, permeability, and hydrophobicity [62]. CC and C-GDL materials are treated with PTFE. One side of CC and C-GDL consists of a microporous layer (MPL) made of carbon and a hydrophobic agent. Earlier reports have suggested an enhanced activity towards H₂O₂ production upon increasing the hydrophobicity [43]. However, we observed a lower electrochemical H₂O₂ production in CC and C-GDL (Table 1 and Fig. 2b). A summary of the technical specification of these carbon materials is shown in the Supporting Information, Table S2. Due to its low onset potential, higher H₂O₂ selectivity, production rate, and consequently the highest achieved H₂O₂ concentration, CFP was chosen for further investigations.

It should be noted that the H₂O₂ selectivity and production rate observed in these initial experiments on CFP are relatively low compared to values reported in the literature using PTFE/CFP in 1 mol L⁻¹ Na₂CO₃ [43]. Nevertheless, these initial measurements have been conducted under operational conditions that had not been

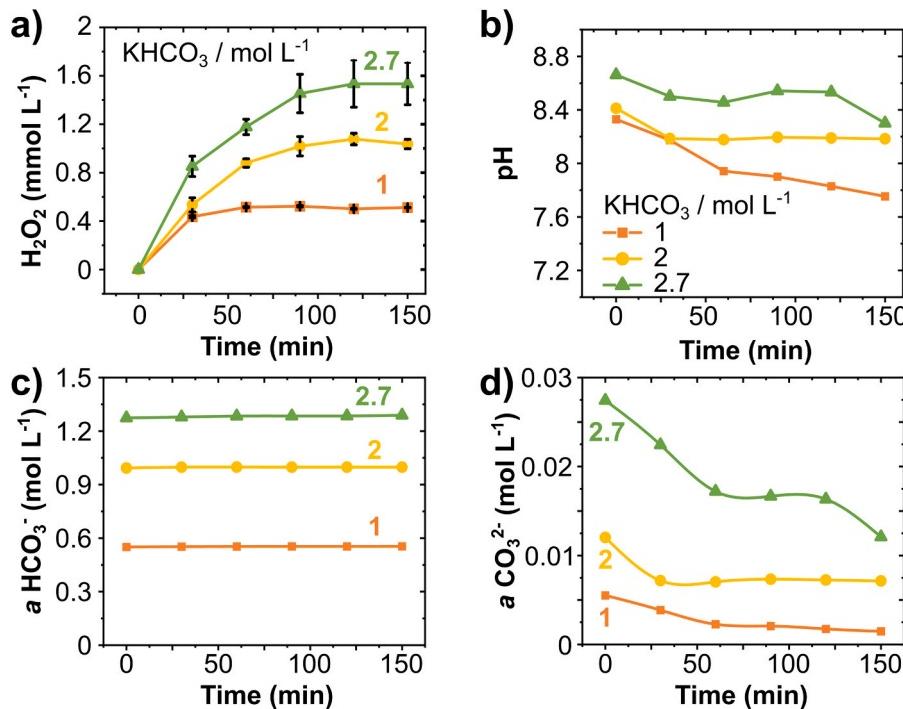


Fig. 4. Anodic H₂O₂ production in KHCO₃ electrolyte with different concentrations. (a) H₂O₂ production over time, (b) pH variation, (c) HCO₃⁻ activity, and (d) CO₃²⁻ activity in the anolyte circulated with 1, 2 and 2.7 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ ■ ● ▲ . Experiment conditions: flow cell at 100 mA cm⁻² for 150 min and 200 mL anolyte circulated at 100 mL min⁻¹.

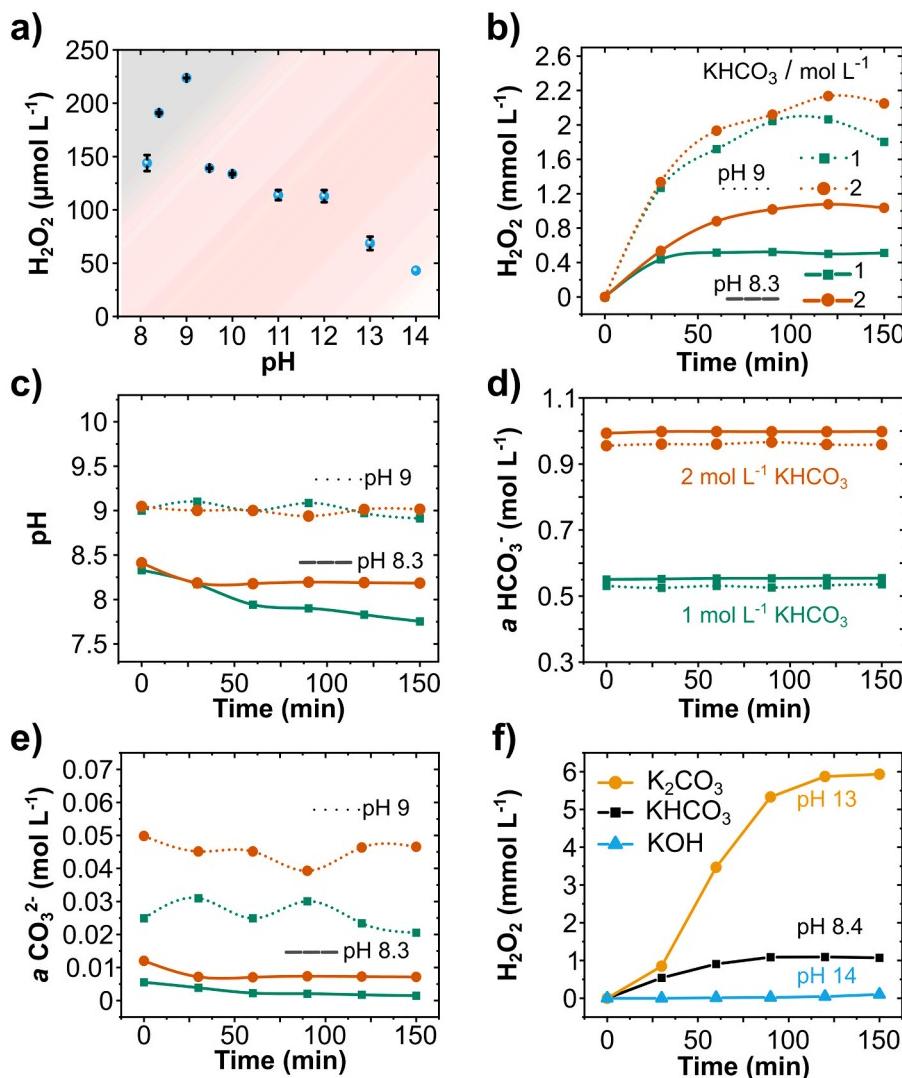


Fig. 5. Study of the anodic H_2O_2 generation in 1 mol L^{-1} and 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO₃ electrolytes at different pH. (a) anodic H_2O_2 production with pH variation in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO₃ at 50 mA cm^{-2} for 10 min in an H-cell. (b) H_2O_2 production, (c) pH change, and (d) $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ and (e) $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ in the anolyte circulated with (■) 1 mol L^{-1} or (●) 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO₃. Solid lines correspond to non-regulated pH experiments. Dotted lines correspond to experiments with pH control at pH 9. (f) H_2O_2 production in ■ 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO₃, ● K_2CO_3 , and ▲ KOH. 30 mmol L^{-1} of Na₂SiO₃ was added to 2 mol L^{-1} K₂CO₃ and to 2 mol L^{-1} KOH as a stabilizer to prevent decomposition of H_2O_2 at high pH. Experimental conditions for (b–e): flow cell at 100 mA cm^{-2} for 150 min with 200 mL electrolyte at 100 mL min^{-1} .

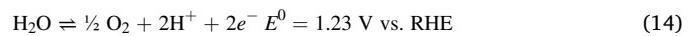
optimized. The following sessions will show how the optimization of reaction parameters is crucial to enhance the final anodic H_2O_2 production on CFP electrodes.

3.2. Effect of potential and current density

The anodic H_2O_2 production upon variation of potential and current density was evaluated on CFP electrodes. Potentiostatic experiments varying the potential positively stepwise from +1.2 V to +2.2 V vs. Ag/AgCl in an H-cell (Fig. 3a) showed the highest H_2O_2 concentration of $270 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ at +2.0 V vs. Ag/AgCl with a current density (j) of $\sim 175 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$. The maximum production rate at this potential (+2.0 V) was $0.67 \mu\text{mol min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ after 10 min (the potential screening data is shown in Supporting Information, Table S1 and Fig. S4a). At +1.8, +2.0, and +2.2 V vs. Ag/AgCl, the H_2O_2 formation rate stayed constant at $0.67 \mu\text{mol min}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, despite the increase in current density from 120 to 232 mA cm^{-2} at the same potential range, indicating most of the current is consumed for O₂ evolution at more positive potentials. Further study at higher potentials led to an increase in the current density, though considerably lower H_2O_2 concentration, indicating a preference for water oxidation to O₂ (Supporting Information, Fig. S4b).

The setup was transferred to a flow cell, where galvanostatic experiments with the current density being raised stepwise from 10 to

200 mA cm^{-2} showed a maximum concentration of H_2O_2 (1.1 mmol L^{-1}) at 100 mA cm^{-2} (Fig. 3b). At 150 mA cm^{-2} , the H_2O_2 concentration had a peak at 120 min (1.2 mmol L^{-1}), decaying to 0.9 mmol L^{-1} after 150 min (H_2O_2 concentration versus time at different current densities is shown in Supporting Information, Fig. S4c). This decay in H_2O_2 concentration indicates the decomposition of the generated H_2O_2 on the electrode surface. The same behavior was observed at 200 mA cm^{-2} . Since the standard potential for H_2O_2 oxidation (0.67 V vs. RHE, Eq. (15)) is considerably lower than the standard potential for water oxidation to H_2O_2 (1.76 V vs. RHE, Eq. (2)), the electrogenerated H_2O_2 can decompose to O₂ in the vicinity of the electrified electrode surface. Moreover, H_2O_2 is chemically unstable and can self-decompose to O₂. An experiment of chemical stability for electrogenerated H_2O_2 showed a decay of 19% H_2O_2 during 2.5 h at an open circuit (Supporting Information, Fig. S5). Thus, a combined effect of self-and electro-decomposition of H_2O_2 can lead to a limitation of the H_2O_2 concentration to a level where formation and decomposition of H_2O_2 occur at the same rate [63]. Hence, at higher current densities (150 and 200 mA cm^{-2}), a combination of water oxidation to O₂ and H_2O_2 decomposition (Eqs. (14) and (15)) accounts for the lower H_2O_2 concentration.



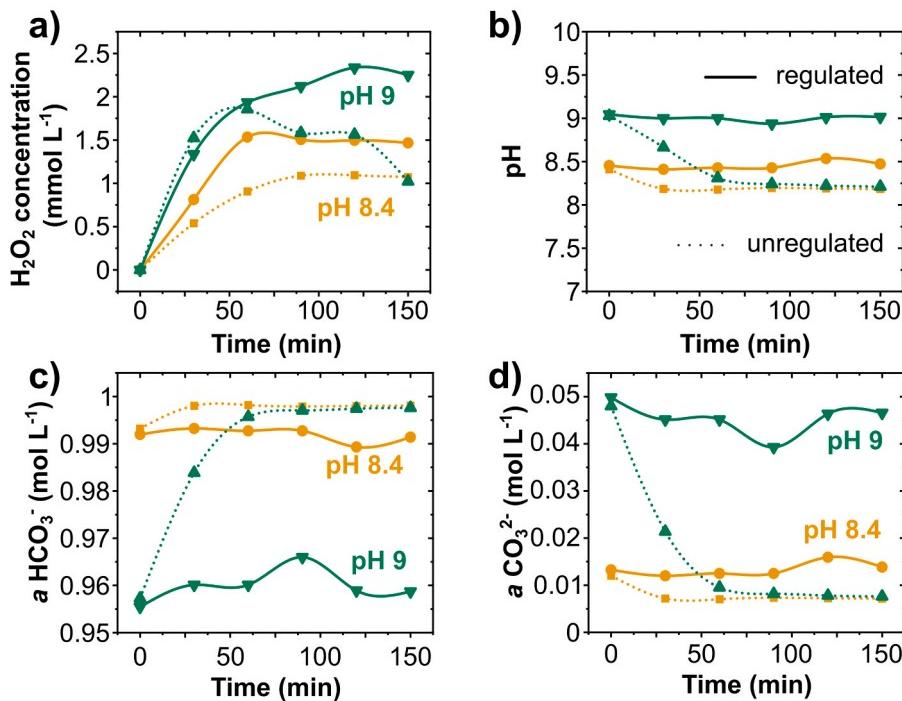


Fig. 6. Anodic H_2O_2 generation in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 electrolyte at different pH. (a) H_2O_2 concentration (b) pH change, (c) $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ and (d) $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ in the anolyte in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 at (●, ■) pH 8.4, and (▼, ▲) pH 9. Solid lines correspond to experiments with pH regulation during electrolysis. Dotted lines correspond to experiments without pH regulation. Experiment conditions: Flow cell at 100 mA cm^{-2} with 200 mL anolyte at a flow rate of 100 mL min^{-1} .

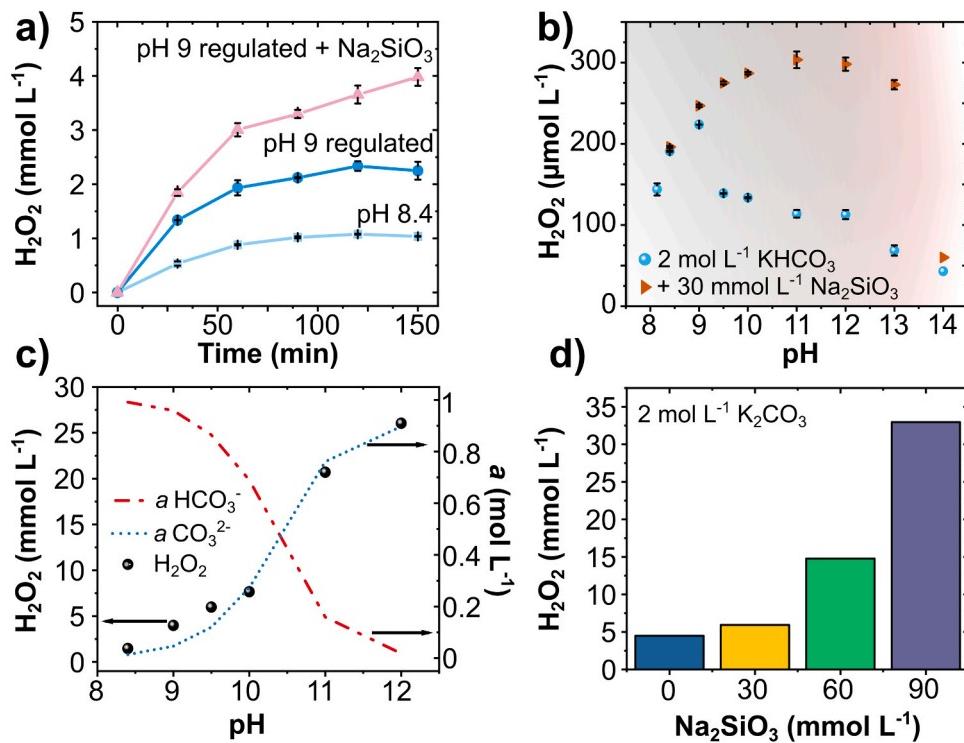


Fig. 7. Effect of Na_2SiO_3 stabilizer on H_2O_2 generation. (a) Anodic H_2O_2 concentration in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 electrolyte at (■) pH 8.4, (●) controlled pH 9, and (▲) at controlled pH 9 with 30 mmol L^{-1} of Na_2SiO_3 as a stabilizer after 150 min at 100 mA cm^{-2} in a flow cell. (b) Anodic H_2O_2 production with pH variation in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 with and without 30 mmol L^{-1} Na_2SiO_3 at 50 mA cm^{-2} for 10 min in an H-cell. (c) H_2O_2 concentration, $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ and $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ in the anolyte at different pH in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 after 150 min of electrolysis at 100 mA cm^{-2} in a flow cell. Up to pH 11, the stabilizer concentration used was 30 mmol L^{-1} . At pH 12, the stabilizer concentration was 90 mmol L^{-1} . (d) H_2O_2 production in 2 mol L^{-1} K_2CO_3 (pH 12.6) with different stabilizer concentrations after 150 min of electrolysis at 100 mA cm^{-2} in a flow cell.

Table 2

Summary of the electrolyte optimization for anodic H₂O₂ production on carbon fiber paper. Experimental conditions: 100 mA cm⁻² for 150 min, carbon fiber paper anode, and 100 mL min⁻¹ electrolyte flow rate. All experiments in this table were carried out with pH control during electrolysis.

Electrolyte	pH	Conductivity mS cm ⁻¹	$a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ mol L ⁻¹	$a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ mol L ⁻¹	[Na ₂ SiO ₃] mmol L ⁻¹	[H ₂ O ₂] mmol L ⁻¹
2 mol L ⁻¹ KHCO ₃	8.4	119.4	0.99	0.01	0	1.47
	9.0	123.5	0.96	0.05	0	2.25
	9.0	123.5	0.96	0.05	30	3.98
	9.5	139.2	0.86	0.12	30	5.98
	10.0	152.5	0.69	0.27	30	7.66
	11.0	166.3	0.16	0.76	30	20.70
	12.0	169.4	0.02	0.90	90	26.04
2 mol L ⁻¹ K ₂ CO ₃	12.6	208.0	—	—	0	4.48
		211.0	—	—	30	5.93
		210.0	—	—	60	14.77
		210.0	—	—	90	32.96

At current densities higher than 100 mA cm⁻², a visual color change was observed in the electrolyte, which turned brown from colorless (Supporting Information, Fig. S6). The oxidation of the carbon surface caused erosion of the electrode, and graphitic carbon particles were exfoliated in the electrolyte [64]. SEM images of the carbon electrodes before and after 150 min of electrolysis at 200 mA cm⁻² revealed a damaged electrode surface (Supporting Information, Fig. S6). The fiber thickness decreased from 7.9 μm to 3.5 μm, indicating electrode degradation.

The highest H₂O₂ concentration and the lowest cell potential were obtained at 100 mA cm⁻², thus this current density was applied for all following electrolyte optimization experiments. To examine electrode stability, cycles of 2.5 h at 100 mA cm⁻² in 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ were performed, in which the electrolyte was changed at every cycle of 2.5 h (Supporting Information, Fig. S7, and S8). Interestingly, upon changing the electrolyte, the H₂O₂ concentration quickly reached a similar concentration as the previous cycle (between 0.6 and 1 mmol L⁻¹), indicating that the maximum H₂O₂ concentration is limited by the electrochemical H₂O₂ decomposition. Moreover, the cell potential was rather constant throughout the cycles. Hence, the CFP electrodes are stable for 7 cycles at 100 mA cm⁻² (17.5 h). After this time, carbon particles were observed in the anolyte reservoir, indicating oxidation and mechanical disintegration of the electrode.

3.3. Effect of electrolyte concentration

The anodic oxidation of water to H₂O₂ was evaluated in KHCO₃ electrolyte with concentrations of 1.0, 2.0, and 2.7 mol L⁻¹. The latter corresponds to a saturated KHCO₃ solution at room temperature, as the maximum solubility of KHCO₃ in water is 23 g/100 mL (2.3 mol L⁻¹) at 20 °C [65]. LSV of CFP electrodes in these three electrolytes showed

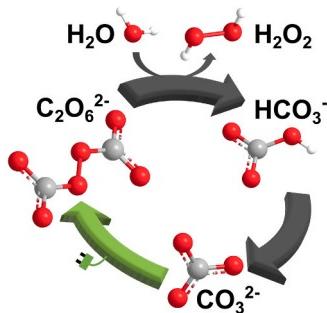
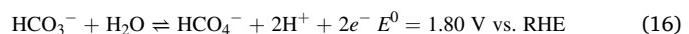


Fig. 8. Suggested mechanism for anodic H₂O₂ production in bicarbonate electrolytes. Bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻) are deprotonated to carbonate (CO₃²⁻) in alkaline electrolytes. CO₃²⁻ can be anodically oxidized to peroxodicarbonate (C₂O₆²⁻) species. C₂O₆²⁻ decomposes into HCO₃⁻ and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), closing the cycle with a higher H₂O₂ concentration.

considerably higher current densities in more concentrated KHCO₃ solutions, indicating that HCO₃⁻ accelerates water oxidation (LSVs shown in Supporting Information, Fig. S9). Flow cell experiments at 100 mA cm⁻² showed a three-fold increase in H₂O₂ production upon raising the bicarbonate concentration from 1.0 to 2.7 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃: from 0.5 to 1.5 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂ after 150 min (Fig. 4a). The production rate rises from 0.29 to 0.56 μmol min⁻¹ cm⁻² after 30 min (peak of production rate, see Supporting Information, Fig. S10a, b). Hydrogen carbonate ions (HCO₃⁻) have been described as a stabilizing agent and accounted for enhancing the water oxidation to H₂O₂ [32,37,41,44]. The described mechanism for enhancing H₂O₂ production in bicarbonate electrolytes involves the generation of peroxomonocarbonate (HCO₄⁻) species at the anode through HCO₃⁻ oxidation (Eq. (16)). Subsequently, peroxocarbonate species decompose hydrolytically into H₂O₂ and bicarbonate ions, as given in Eq. (17) [37,43,46].



The anodically produced H₂O₂ reaches a concentration plateau within 90 min of electrolysis (Fig. 4a). At more concentrated KHCO₃ electrolytes, the plateau rises to a higher H₂O₂ concentration range. These limiting values of the H₂O₂ concentration can be due to concurrent O₂ formation and electrode decomposition of H₂O₂ [44,66]. The higher rate of H₂O₂ generation increases the rate of H₂O₂ decomposition until a steady-state is reached. An experiment adding 0.9 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂ as initial concentration led to a similar concentration plateau where no H₂O₂ was added (Supporting Information, Fig. S11), suggesting a dynamic steady-state with a limiting H₂O₂ concentration. Hence, the main challenge is to raise the plateau to the highest possible H₂O₂ concentration.

The pH of the KHCO₃ anolyte was constantly monitored and all electrolyte concentrations showed a pH decline during electrolysis (Fig. 4b). The initial pH in 1, 2, and 2.7 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ are 8.3, 8.4, and 8.7, respectively. After 150 min, it decreased to 7.7, 8.1, and 8.3. This slight anolyte acidification is caused by the electro-oxidation of water (Eqs. (2) and (14)).

Based on pH variation during electrolysis, we calculated the variation of ionic activity for HCO₃⁻ ($a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$) and CO₃²⁻ ($a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$) species in the electrolyte (Fig. 4c, d). The equilibrium between HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻ ions is pH-dependent, and at a pH range from 8 to 9, the activity of HCO₃⁻ ions is higher than CO₃²⁻ (Supporting Information, Fig. S2). $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ and $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ increase accordingly with electrolyte concentration (Fig. 4c, d). In this pH range, $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ is two orders of magnitude smaller than that of $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ and decreases during electrolysis, whereas the activity of $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ ions appears to be constant at each concentration (Fig. 4c, d). Varying the concentration of the electrolyte leads to a change in the pH, ionic activity for HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻ ions in the electrolyte. Experiments with and without the addition of

Table 3A comparison of the reported work on water oxidation to H₂O₂ with our present study.

Electrode	Cell type	Electrolyte	pH	[H ₂ O ₂] _{max} mmol L ⁻¹	Conditions ^a				Production rate μmol min ⁻¹ cm ⁻²	Peak FE %	Ref.	
					j/E	t	EA cm ²	VA mL	S			
PTFE/CFP	H-Cell	1 M Na ₂ CO ₃	12	3	100	420	0.36	25	~30	23.4	66	[43]
BDD/Nb			11.9	—	39.8	10	1.13	8.5	—	3.93	31.7	[80]
BDD/Ti		2 M KHCO ₃	8	~16	120	5	7.4	25	—	~8	28	[44]
BDD/Ti			8	29	295	5	7.4	25	—	19.7	~22	[44]
CaSnO ₃ /FTO	Undivided		8.3	—	3.2 V	10	—	30	—	~4.6	76	[39]
CaSnO ₃ /FTO			8.3	~0.9	2.2 V	720	—	30	—	—	—	[39]
BiVO ₄ /FTO		1 M NaHCO ₃	8.3	—	3.1 V	—	1	20	—	5.7	70	[38]
CFP	Flow-Cell	2 M KHCO ₃	8.4	1.47	100	150	10	200	—	0.5	1.7	This work
CFP			12	26	100	150	10	200	90	4	13.1	
CFP		2 M K ₂ CO ₃	12.6	33	100	150	10	200	90	4.5	14.3	

^a j: Current density (mA cm⁻²), E: Potential applied (V vs. RHE), t: Time (min), EA: Electrode area (cm²), VA: Volume of anolyte (mL), S: Stabilizer concentration (mmol L⁻¹ Na₂SiO₃).

KHCO₃ during the electrolysis reveals that increasing the KHCO₃ concentration results in an increase of (i) H₂O₂ production, (ii) pH, (iii) conductivity, and (iv) activity of HCO₃[−] and CO₃^{2−} ions (**Supporting Information**, Fig. S12a–e). It is possible that the higher anodic H₂O₂ production results from a combined effect of higher pH and ratio of the activity of HCO₃[−] and CO₃^{2−} ions in the electrolyte. Thus, we have investigated these two parameters in more detail, discussed in the following sections.

3.4. Effect of pH

Experiments described in the previous section showed that a higher concentration of HCO₃[−] ions boost H₂O₂ production. However, in the electrolyte, the distribution of the HCO₃[−] and CO₃^{2−} ion is pH-dependent [37]. Upon carrying out long-term electrosynthesis, a significant pH shift was observed towards a more acidic electrolyte, which leads to a change of HCO₃[−] / CO₃^{2−} ratio in the solution. Earlier studies reporting H₂O oxidation to H₂O₂ upon pH variation between 7 and 12.5 in 0.5 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ showed lower H₂O₂ production at higher pH [37]. The authors attributed the lower H₂O₂ production in more alkaline electrolytes to the higher concentration of CO₃^{2−} ions.

In this work, we have investigated in detail the effect of pH variation on the anodic oxidation of water by adjusting the pH of a 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ anolyte between 8 and 14. The pH was varied through CO₂ bubbling or KOH addition. LSVs in 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ at pH 8.4, 9, 9.5, and 10 (**Supporting Information**, Fig. S13) revealed lower onset potential and higher current densities upon increasing the pH, indicating not only the increase in conductivity but also higher electrolyte reactivity in more alkaline medium.

Quantitative measurements in anolytes with pH from 8.14 to 14 were performed in an H-cell at a constant current of 50 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 5a). The initial pH of a typical 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ solution is 8.4. At this initial pH, 191 μmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂ is formed anodically after 10 min. Decreasing the pH to 8.12 causes a decline in final H₂O₂ concentration to 144 μmol L⁻¹. Increasing the pH to 9 leads to a H₂O₂ concentration of 225 μmol L⁻¹. However, raising pH beyond 9 causes a decline in H₂O₂ production, caused by an increasing rate of decomposition of H₂O₂ in alkaline pH. Thus, at these conditions of electrolyte concentration and current density, the maximum H₂O₂ concentration was obtained at pH 9.

A set of flow cell experiments at 100 mA cm⁻² was carried out in 1 mol L⁻¹ and 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃, both at pH 8.3 and 9. Upon increasing the pH from 8.3 to 9, a fourfold increase in H₂O₂ production was achieved in 1 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ (from 0.5 to 2 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂) and a twofold in 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ (from 1.1 to 2.4 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂) (Fig. 5b). The pH was constantly monitored and regulated with KOH addition upon pH decrease (Fig. 5c). It is important to remark that the amount of KOH added is negligible compared to the KHCO₃ concentration; hence it does not impact the a(HCO₃[−]) or a(CO₃^{2−}). Furthermore, we observed that a slightly basic regime (at pH 9) enhances the electrochemical H₂O₂

production. Nevertheless, increasing the bicarbonate concentration from 1 to 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ at pH 9 does not significantly improve the H₂O₂ final concentration. This suggests that it is not the HCO₃[−] concentration but the pH regime or the CO₃^{2−} concentration being affected by the pH regime that enhances the H₂O₂ production.

Under basic conditions, HCO₃[−] ions dissociate into proton (H⁺) and carbonate ions (CO₃^{2−}) (Eq. (7)) [37,60]. Raising the pH from 8.3 to 8.4–9 in 1 and 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ solutions showed that a(HCO₃[−]) is most affected by the electrolyte concentration, whereas a(CO₃^{2−}) varies accordingly with the pH change (Fig. 5d, e), due to the dissociation of bicarbonate in alkaline medium. In 1 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃, the average a(HCO₃[−]) ions decreased by 5.5% upon increasing the pH (Fig. 5d), whereas the a(CO₃^{2−}) increased 10 times (Fig. 5e), however the absolute changes are the same. A similar behavior of lower a(HCO₃[−]) and higher a(CO₃^{2−}) is depicted for 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ at pH 9. A correlation between the increase in a(CO₃^{2−}) and an enhanced H₂O₂ production was also observed, as higher H₂O₂ concentrations were obtained at higher pH.

CO₃^{2−} ions have been previously reported to be unsuitable for the selective oxidation of water to H₂O₂ compared to HCO₃[−] ions [37,41]. On the other hand, Xia et al. [43] reported higher anodic H₂O₂ production in 1 mol L⁻¹ Na₂CO₃ (pH 10.3) compared to 1 mol L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ (pH 8.3), suggesting that CO₃^{2−} ion enhances the H₂O₂ production than the HCO₃[−] ions. Considering the active role of CO₃^{2−} ions and the tendency of H₂O₂ to undergo base-catalyzed decomposition in alkaline media, we have changed the electrolyte from 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ (pH 8.4) to 2 mol L⁻¹ K₂CO₃ (pH 13). 30 mmol L⁻¹ Na₂SiO₃ was added to the anolyte to inhibit the H₂O₂ decomposition at high pH [67]. Changing the electrolyte caused an increase in the anodic H₂O₂ production, namely from 1.1 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂ in KHCO₃ to 5.9 mmol L⁻¹ in the K₂CO₃ electrolyte (Fig. 5f). Keeping the pH high at around 14 and changing the electrolyte to 2 mol L⁻¹ KOH + 30 mmol L⁻¹ Na₂SiO₃ resulted in negligible production of H₂O₂. Thereby, the active role of carbonate ions, and not of the alkaline pH regime, in promoting water oxidation to H₂O₂ was confirmed.

During electrolysis, the pH of the 2 mol L⁻¹ KHCO₃ electrolyte decreases due to the constant oxidation of OH[−] ions. In a typical experiment, the final pH of the anolyte is 8.2 after 150 min of anodic polarization, irrespective of the initial pH (9 or 8.4, Fig. 6). The final H₂O₂ concentration is also 1 mmol L⁻¹ for both experiments. This pH decrease leads to a drop in both: a(CO₃^{2−}) and H₂O₂ production (Fig. 6). At pH 9, the peak production of H₂O₂ is achieved after 60 min (1.9 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂), with a subsequent decline, presumably due to reduced a(CO₃^{2−}) (Fig. 6d). Active adjustment of the pH to achieve constant values at 8.4 and 9 throughout the electrolysis enhanced the H₂O₂ production considerably. For instance, pH regulation at 9 promoted an increase in H₂O₂ production after the 60 min peak, reaching 2.2 mmol L⁻¹ H₂O₂ after 150 min. This correlation of higher pH, higher a(CO₃^{2−}), and higher H₂O₂ production endorses the hypothesis that

higher $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ enhances the generation of H_2O_2 by either generating peroxocarbonate species or stabilizing the peroxide and avoiding its further anodic oxidation by forming a percarbonate adduct [68].

3.5. Effect of stabilizer

H_2O_2 is an unstable compound, decomposing to water and molecular oxygen, as shown in Eq. (18).



To slow down the H_2O_2 decomposition, organic stabilizers such as aryl alkyl ketones are used in practice [69]. These stabilizers are redox-active compounds, which can sacrificially oxidize if added to an electrolytic cell. To prevent the anodic degradation of such compounds during H_2O_2 production, we have chosen a non-redox active additive to stabilize H_2O_2 , namely sodium metasilicate (Na_2SiO_3) [67]. Previous experiments using 4 mg mL^{-1} Na_2SiO_3 in 1 mol L^{-1} Na_2CO_3 showed high anodic production of H_2O_2 , up to 3 mmol L^{-1} [43]. The working mechanism of Na_2SiO_3 as a H_2O_2 stabilizer is rather unclear. Literature reports for the stabilization mechanism include formation of complex between Na_2SiO_3 and H_2O_2 [70], formation of stable peroxide compounds, stopping the decomposition chain reactions by destruction of the free radicals, and formation of complexes with metal impurities [71]. Moreover, Na_2SiO_3 is also accounted for the stabilization of anodically produced peroxocarbonate species using BDD electrodes in Na_2CO_3 electrolytes [72]. However, the role of the metasilicate for H_2O oxidation to H_2O_2 has not been studied in depth.

We have investigated anolytes without and with Na_2SiO_3 and their effect on the anodic H_2O_2 generation. The addition of 30 mmol L^{-1} Na_2SiO_3 to the 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 anolyte controlled at pH 9 caused a two-fold increase in H_2O_2 production: from 2.2 mmol L^{-1} to 4 mmol L^{-1} H_2O_2 (Fig. 7a). The maximum FE for H_2O_2 production increased from 1% to 4%, and the production rate increased fourfold (from 0.3 to 1.2 $\mu\text{mol min}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$) (Supporting Information, Fig. S14a,b). Thus, the presence of Na_2SiO_3 in solution remarkably enhanced the formation and accumulation of H_2O_2 in the electrolyte.

The pH range of anolytes containing Na_2SiO_3 was varied from pH 8.4–14 in an H-cell at 50 mA cm^{-2} . This preliminary screening revealed higher production of H_2O_2 at elevated pH (> 9), with peak production of 300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ H_2O_2 at pH 11 (Fig. 7b). At pH above 11, the H_2O_2 production declined considerably, reaching 60 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ at pH 14. Previous reports on anodic H_2O_2 production in different pHs show higher anodic H_2O_2 generation at pH below 11.4 [73]. In this study, the presence of Na_2SiO_3 inhibits H_2O_2 decomposition up to pH 11. At pH higher than 11, more stabilizer is required for increasing H_2O_2 concentrations (Supporting Information, Fig. S15a).

Experiments in the flow cell showed the same pattern: higher H_2O_2 concentrations were obtained in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 electrolytes containing Na_2SiO_3 , even at higher pH (Fig. 7c). 26 mmol L^{-1} H_2O_2 was achieved at pH 12 in the presence of 90 mmol L^{-1} Na_2SiO_3 , compared to 1.5 mmol L^{-1} at pH 8.4 without the stabilizer. These results suggest that higher pH enhances the electrochemical production of H_2O_2 , provided that a chemical stabilizer hinders its subsequent decomposition.

Literature reports on anodic H_2O_2 production in different electrolytes and pH suggested that HCO_3^- ions promote H_2O_2 formation, whereas CO_3^{2-} ions aid to H_2O_2 decomposition [32]. K_2CO_3 electrolytes at pH 12.7 showed lower H_2O_2 production compared to other electrolytes with lower pH [74]. Regarding the pH variation, the Na_2SiO_3 stabilizer prevented H_2O_2 decomposition even in high alkaline conditions. Consequently, higher H_2O_2 concentrations were achieved at elevated pH. Calculations of $a(\text{HCO}_3^-)$ and $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ in the electrolyte show a remarkable correspondence of higher H_2O_2 formation with higher $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ upon pH variation (Fig. 7c).

To confirm the role of CO_3^{2-} ions on H_2O_2 production, K_2CO_3 electrolytes were utilized in the presence of Na_2SiO_3 . K_2CO_3 electrolytes

have been accounted for poor anodic production of H_2O_2 [74]. Nonetheless, we find considerably high H_2O_2 production upon increasing the Na_2SiO_3 concentration. An initial investigation in the H-Cell revealed higher stabilizer concentration results in high H_2O_2 production, particularly in high pH regimes (Supporting Information, Fig. S17). In the presence of 90 mol L^{-1} Na_2SiO_3 , 33 mmol L^{-1} H_2O_2 was obtained after 150 min with a final FE of 14% (Fig. 7d), which is at least 20 times higher than the H_2O_2 concentration obtained in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 without the stabilizer. Thus, the influence of CO_3^{2-} ions is evident on the 2e⁻ oxidation of water to H_2O_2 , as long as a chemical stabilizer is present to avoid peroxide decomposition.

3.6. Summary of work and proposed mechanism

Variation of KHCO_3 concentration in the anolyte revealed higher H_2O_2 production in more concentrated solutions. Literature reports proposed that the HCO_3^- ions oxidize to HCO_4^- during the anodic polarization (Eq. (16)). Subsequently, HCO_4^- decomposes to HCO_3^- , thereby releasing H_2O_2 (Eq. (17)) [37,43,46]. Therefore, HCO_3^- ions contribute to enhanced H_2O_2 formation.

However, increasing the KHCO_3 concentration results in a pH rise, which subsequently increases the activity of CO_3^{2-} ions due to the $\text{HCO}_3^- / \text{CO}_3^{2-}$ equilibrium. Our results of pH screening in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 are in agreement with the literature, showing that highly alkaline electrolytes are unfavorable for anodic H_2O_2 production [37]. Nevertheless, the addition of Na_2SiO_3 to the anolyte stabilized the H_2O_2 production even in pH regimes higher than 12. Changing the anolyte to 2 mol L^{-1} K_2CO_3 in the presence of Na_2SiO_3 at pH 12 confirmed the influence of the CO_3^{2-} ions activity in boosting H_2O_2 formation. A summary of the electrolyte optimization is given in Table 2, which shows an enhance in the anodic H_2O_2 production by a factor of 20 upon optimizing the electrolyte conditions.

Literature reports on anodic processes in carbonate electrolytes have shown that CO_3^{2-} ions can be oxidized to peroxodicarbonate ($\text{C}_2\text{O}_6^{2-}$) (Eq. (19)) [46,68,75]. Various carbon-based materials, including boron-doped diamond, have been accounted for producing peroxodicarbonate ions in solution [75–78]. Due to the poor stability of peroxocarbonate ions in aqueous solutions, it hydrolyses to form H_2O_2 and HCO_3^- (Eq. (20)) [68,72,78]. HCO_3^- ions are deprotonated to CO_3^{2-} at high pH, which consequently can undergo oxidation to $\text{C}_2\text{O}_6^{2-}$ (Eq. (7) and Fig. 8). We suggest a promotion effect of CO_3^{2-} ions in alkaline medium resulting in higher production of H_2O_2 , provided a suitable amount of stabilizer is present in the electrolyte. *In situ* studies to identify the anodic generation of $\text{C}_2\text{O}_6^{2-}$ ions would be required to validate the peroxocarbonate mechanism.



The proposed crucial role of CO_3^{2-} ions in H_2O_2 formation is based on the activity profile of carbonate and bicarbonate ions and the H_2O_2 production at different pH values (Fig. 7c). At higher pH values, the chemical equilibrium of $\text{HCO}_3^- / \text{CO}_3^{2-}$ shifts to carbonate. Simultaneously, the H_2O_2 production increases, as long as a stabilizer is present to avoid H_2O_2 decomposition. Moreover, carbonate ions can be oxidized to peroxodicarbonate and release H_2O_2 via hydrolysis. In parallel to our investigations, the group of Gill et al. [63] demonstrated the role of carbonate in promoting anodic H_2O_2 production: first, a rotating ring disc electrode showed that H_2O_2 was not readily detected in the ring, but only with a time delay. This indicates oxidation of the electrolyte species followed by hydrolysis, thereby promoting H_2O_2 production. *In situ* infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) studies by the same group confirmed the role of carbonate and the presence of HCO_3^- or $\text{C}_2\text{O}_6^{2-}$ peroxo-intermediates on the electrode surface at the potentials of H_2O_2 generation [63]. In contrast to our results presented here, Gill et al. reported higher H_2O_2 productivity in HCO_3^- than in CO_3^{2-} electrolyte.

This difference lays in the use of stabilizers in our experiments. Chemical stabilizers enabled a superior reaction performance in higher pH regimes and higher CO_3^{2-} activities. The high pH of CO_3^{2-} solutions will lead to H_2O_2 decomposition in the absence of a stabilizer and consequently, a lower productivity compared to HCO_3^- solutions. DFT calculations by Mavrikis et al. also indicated an important role of CO_3^{2-} ions in enhancing the H_2O_2 production in an electrolyte mixture of 1:1 KHCO_3 and K_2CO_3 , thus supporting our hypothesis [79].

A comparison of our results with those reported in the literature is summarized in Table 3. In this study, a maximum H_2O_2 concentration of 33 mmol L^{-1} was obtained, which is, to the best of our knowledge, the highest reported concentration of anodically produced H_2O_2 using CFP. Although the faradaic efficiency of 14.3% is not high, it is the highest FE obtained at such current density using pristine CFP [43]. The FE and the production rates, usually defined as performance parameters, are comparatively low and require further improvement by using foremost active electrode materials. Nonetheless, it is important to point out that we have used a low-cost, readily available carbon material as a working electrode. Additionally, a comparatively more significant 10 cm^2 flow cell and higher electrolyte volume have been utilized in this study to demonstrate improvements in the H_2O_2 accumulation by optimizing the electrolyte composition and operating conditions.

4. Conclusion

The performance of low-cost commercial carbon materials as anodes for anodic H_2O_2 production was investigated through variation and optimization of a broad range of electrolyte composition and operating parameters. We showed that carbon fiber paper exhibited good selectivity toward water oxidation to H_2O_2 and used it for further in-depth examinations. This study highlights the importance of tuning reaction conditions such as potential, current density, electrolyte concentrations, pH values, and utilization of stabilizer to boost the electrochemical water oxidation to H_2O_2 . Supported by the calculated activity of carbonate species in the electrolyte, the experimental data suggested a strong correlation between the $a(\text{CO}_3^{2-})$ and enhanced H_2O_2 generation in KHCO_3 anolytes. Keeping the activity of CO_3^{2-} ions high by regulating the pH regime to remain stable at 9 almost doubled the H_2O_2 production, reaching 2.2 mmol L^{-1} . Thus, CO_3^{2-} does not compete, but acts as a reaction mediator promoting H_2O_2 production. Adding Na_2SiO_3 to the electrolyte as a stabilizer remarkably boosted the anodic generation of H_2O_2 at higher pH regimes. H_2O_2 concentration up to 26 mmol L^{-1} was obtained in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 at pH 12. Finally, this study illustrated the importance of suitable electrolyte conditions for improving the electrochemical oxidation of water to H_2O_2 . Optimized electrolyte conditions (90 mmol L^{-1} Na_2SiO_3 in 2 mol L^{-1} K_2CO_3) led to H_2O_2 concentrations up to 33 mmol L^{-1} , at least 20 fold higher than in 2 mol L^{-1} KHCO_3 , which is used as a standard electrolyte. Future approaches will emphasize the optimized electrolyte condition with highly active electrode materials to enhance the anodic production of H_2O_2 . This is subject to our ongoing work.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Dhananjai Pangotra: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Validation, Writing – original. draft. **Lénárd-István Csepei:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. **Arne Roth:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Carlos Ponce de León:** Writing – review & editing. **Volker Sieber:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Luciana Vieira:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence

the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2021.120848.

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